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## Unveiling anion induced surface reconstruction of perovskite oxide for efficient water oxidation

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#### ABSTRACT

Perovskite oxides are a promising family of oxygen evolution reaction (OER) electrocatalysts. However, rational design of surface reconstruction on perovskite oxides to achieve high intrinsic activity is still a daunting challenge. Here, we demonstrate a facile anion defect approach to activate the surface reconstruction of perovskite oxide for OER. Experimental and theoretical investigations reveal that fluorine incorporation into  $LaNi_{0.75}$ .  $Fe_{0.25}O_3$  (LNFO) perovskite with low vacancy formation energy facilitates surface transformation kinetics, creating electrochemically active oxyhydroxide layer. The reconstruction induced oxyhydroxide-perovskite heterostructure, in turn, enables a reduced energy barrier of OER relative to the pristine perovskite. As a demo, the optimized fluorine incorporated LNFO electrocatalyst exhibits an excellent OER performance with a low overpotential of 292 mV at 10 mA cm $^{-2}$ , significantly superior to the pristine LNFO and the benchmark  $IrO_2$  electrocatalysts. This finding offers new insights into activating surface reconstruction on perovskite oxide by engineering anion defect for water oxidation.

#### 1. Introduction

The global goal of carbon neutral has encouraged people to pursue sustainable energy storage and conversion technologies. Large-scale water electrolysis is widely received as a next generation hydrogen and oxygen production system [1–4]. To advance this technology to commercialization, a core problem is promoting sluggish kinetics of oxygen evolution reaction (OER) because of its complicated four electron-proton transfer process, which prominently restricts the energy efficiency of the overall water splitting system [5–8]. IrO<sub>2</sub> and RuO<sub>2</sub> are currently available OER electrocatalysts, but their extremely rarity, prohibitive cost and insufficient durability heavily hinder large-scale application in diverse renewable energy technologies [9]. This triggers the pursuit of precious metal-free OER electrocatalysts with high activity and long lifetime.

To this end, ever-rising interests have been attracted in perovskite oxides (ABO<sub>3</sub>) as alternative OER electrocatalysts owing to the

tunability of chemical composition and electronic structure, e.g.  $Ba_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}Co_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O_{3-\delta}$  (BSCF) [10], and  $PrBa_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}Co_{1.5}Fe_{0.5}O_{5+\delta}$  (PBSCF) [11] etc. In typical perovskite structure, transition metal cation occupying in B-site is coordinated with oxygen anions as a formation of [BO<sub>6</sub>] octahedra. These octahedras are corner/edge/face-shared with other adjacent octahedras to construct a three-dimension ordered framework. Several inner descriptors of perovskites involved in OER activity have been disclosed, including electron orbital occupancy [10], metal-oxygen interaction [12–14], oxygen vacancy density,[15,16] lattice-oxygen participation [17–20], etc. For example, Sr doped into  $La_{1-x}Sr_xNiO_3$  perovskite strengthened the hybridization between Ni and O, resulting in the accelerated charge transfer kinetics towards OER [21]. Fe substitution in LaFe\_xNi\_{1-x}O\_3 perovskite with optimized electronic configuration and enhanced transition metal M 3d-O 2p hybridization contributed to a dramatically enhanced OER activity [22,23].

Despite these significant advances, perovskite oxides readily suffer from surface reconstruction issue under OER operating conditions,

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which in turn complicates the identification of electrochemical active sites [24–31]. Therefore, it is of a great implication to understand the underlying mechanism of surface structural transformation and the real active sites of perovskite oxides towards OER. As revealed,  $Ba^{2+}/Sr^{2+}$  could leach out from BSCF during OER operation, creating Co/Fe spinel-like surface. Scuh surface futher dictated the surface reconstruction of electrochemically active Co(Fe)OOH, leading to an exceptional intrinsic activity of OER [24]. Compared to kinetically stable La termination LaNiO<sub>3</sub> (LNO), Ni termination LNO conducted the surface reorganization with high OER performance [25]. Ce doping in A-site of La<sub>1-x</sub>Ce<sub>x</sub>NiO<sub>3</sub> reduced the reconstruction potential to yield active NiOOH phase [26]. BaO and BaO<sub>2</sub> segregated on Ba<sub>x</sub>Sr<sub>1-x</sub>Co<sub>0.8</sub>Fe<sub>0.2</sub>O<sub>3-δ</sub> surface significantly benefited oxygen activation kinetics, ultimately boosting OER electrocatalysis [27].

Besides, it is well documented that engineering anion defect in electrocatalysts is another effortless and effective strategy to regulate their surface reconstruction behavior. For instance, a F doped NiFe hydroxide (NiFe-OH-F) nanosheet induced surface self-reconstruction, delivering an efficient OER activity [32]. Similar surface structural transformation has also been revealed in Cl incorporated LiCoO $_{1.8}$ Cl $_{0.2}$ [33], S doped SrIrO $_{3}$  [34], and P substituted Co $_{3}$ O $_{4}$  et al. [35]. Particularly, endowed with strong electronegativity and weak metal-F bond dissociation, [36–40] F containing compounds are prone to surface reconstruction. However, the inner correlation between surface reconstruction and OER mechanism of F incorporated perovskite oxides is still unclear and elusive.

Enlightened by the above, we propose an elegant F-anion incorporation approach to regulate the surface reconstruction on LaNi<sub>0.75</sub>. Fe<sub>0.25</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (LNFO) perovskite. Ni-Fe coupled perovskite is adopted for OER in view of the synergic effect between Ni and Fe [41-43]. We introduce F anion into LNFO perovskite by fluorination annealing at 200 °C, 250 °C, 300 °C, 350 °C, receiving LNFO-200 F, LNFO-250 F, LNFO-300 F, and LNFO-350 F electrocatalysts, respectively. Strong evidences from in-situ Raman spectroscopy and theoretical calculations unveil that F incorporation can induce dynamic surface reconstruction to create electrochemically active oxyhydroxide layer on perovskite oxide, which lowers the theoretical energy barrier of OER. The resultant LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst exhibits a remarkably enhanced OER activity relative to the pristine LNFO electrocatalyst, exhibiting an ultralow overpotential of 292 mV to achieve 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. As a result, the LNFO-250 F||Pt-C based electrolyzer delivers high performance and good durability. This study offers an operability of engineering surface reconstruction on perovskite oxide via anion regulation and provides a comprehensive understanding of underlying OER mechanism involving surface reconstruction.

#### 2. Experimental section

#### 2.1. Synthesis of F incorporated perovskites

LaNi $_{0.75}$ Fe $_{0.25}$ O $_3$  (LNFO) perovskite was synthesized by a common sol-gel way. Stoichiometric amounts of LaNO $_3$ ·6 H $_2$ O, Fe(NO $_3$ ) $_3$ ·9 H $_2$ O, and Ni(NO $_3$ ) $_2$ ·6 H $_2$ O (analytical grade) chemicals were dissolved into a HNO $_3$  solution, resulting in a clarified homogeneous solution. To stabilize metal ions, sequestering agents of citric acid and ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid were subsequently added at a molar ratio of 1: 1.5. NH $_3$ ·6 H $_2$ O solution was employed to tune the pH value at ~7. After that, this solution was heat-treated on a hotplate stirrer at 200 °C until self-combustion happens, followed via calcination at 700 °C for 2 h to receive a LNFO powder. In a common procedure of fluorination, the LNFO and NH $_4$ F powders were placed in two neighboring porcelain boats and was annealing at 200 °C, 250 °C, 300 °C and 350 °C for 2 h under Ar atmosphere, denoted as LNFO-200 F, LNFO-250 F, LNFO-300 F and LNFO-350 F.

#### 2.2. Physicochemical characterizations

X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker, D8 Advance) using a Cu Kα radiation was carried out in the  $2\theta$  range of  $10^{\circ} \sim 90^{\circ}$  to study crystal structures of electrocatalysts. The morphologies of electrocatalysts were characterized on a scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi SU8010). Highresolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, Tecnai G260-300) were applied to investigate the detailed electrocatalyst microstructures. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, AXIS-His spectrometer) using a monochromatic Al Kα source was carried out to understand surface chemical states of electrocatalysts. XPS spectra at the etching depths of approximately 3 nm, 6 nm, 9 nm, 12 nm and 15 nm were conducted. In addition, the XPS C 1 s signal at 284.8 eV was adopted for calibration. For synchrotron radiation X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS), the electrocatalysts and standard samples of Ni and Fe K-edge were recorded at the 1W1B station of the Beijing Synchrotron Radiation Facility (BSRF). Raman spectra were conducted on a spectroscopy (Horiba Jobin Yvon S.A.S.) with a 532 nm excitation laser. A home-made spectro-electrochemical cell with three-electrode configuration was used to study the operando Raman spectra.

#### 2.3. Electrochemical measurements

Electrochemical OER evaluation was performed in a three-electrode system using an electrochemical workstation (CHI 760E). KOH solution (1 M) served as the alkaline electrolyte. Graphite rod electrode was used as the counter electrode, while saturated calomel electrode was employed as the reference electrode. For preparation of the working electrode, electrocatalyst powder (80 mg) was dissolved into ethanol (9.5 mL) and Nafion solution (0.5 mL, Sigma-Aldrich), followed by ultrasound for 2 h to achieve an electrocatalyst dispersion. After that, stoichiometric catalyst dispersion was dropped on the polished glassy carbon (GC) working electrode using a pipetting gun to yield an electrocatalyst depositing of 0.45 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. Linear sweeping voltammogram (LSV) and cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements were set at the sweep speed of 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy tests were carried out at 1.57 V vs. RHE in the frequency range of 0.1 MHz-0.1 Hz. Electrochemical double-layer capacitor (Cdl) values were fitted via scanning CV at multiple sweep speeds ranging from 10 to 140 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. Electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) could be calculated as follow: ECSA=C<sub>dl</sub>/C<sub>s</sub>, where C<sub>s</sub> is the specific capacitance of flat surface area (40 µF cm<sup>-2</sup>). Additionally, all measured potentials were calibrated to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) with 85 % iR correction. In a home-made two-electrode alkaline electrolyzer (1.0 M KOH electrolyte), LNFO-250 F@carbon cloth was applied as the anode, while commercial 20 w.t.% Pt/C@carbon cloth was employed as the cathode. The electrocatalyst powders were deposited on carbon cloth with a mass loading of 1 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. The anode and cathode reactions were expressed by Eq. 1 and Eq. 2, respectively.

$$4OH^-4e^- \rightarrow O_2 + 2H_2O \tag{1}$$

$$4H_2O + 4e^- \rightarrow 2H_2 + 4OH$$
 (2)

To determine the Faraday efficiency of water splitting, a water displacement method was conducted to measure the volumes of the produced  $O_2$  and  $H_2$  gases [44].

#### 2.4. Theoretical calculations

Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were conducted using the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP) based on projector augmented wave (PAW) method [45,46]. The exchange-functional was addressed by the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) of Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional [47,48]. In view of the magnetic properties of Fe and Ni, spin-polarized calculations were adopted. To guarantee the accuracy of GGA, the Hubbard U values (employed as

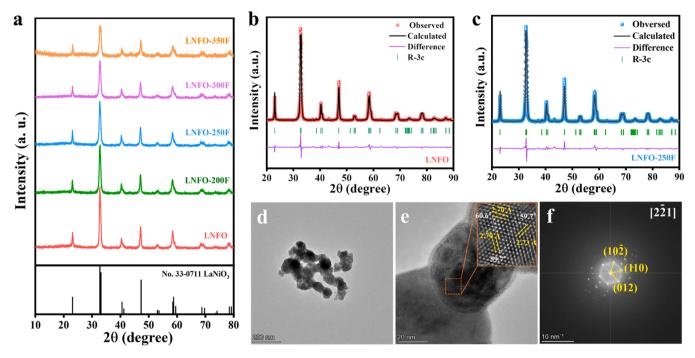


Fig. 1. (a) XRD patterns of LNFO, LNFO-200 F, LNFO-250 F, LNFO-300 F and LNFO-350 F powders; Rietveld refinement XRD patterns of (b) LNFO and (c) LNFO-250 F samples; (d) Low magnification TEM image, (e) High magnification TEM image and (f) Fast flourier transform of LNFO-250 F sample.

U – J) of 4.0 and 6.4 for Fe and Ni were taken from literature [49]. An energy cutoff for the plane wave basis expansion of 400 eV, a force on each atom less than 0.05 eV/Å, and a convergence threshold of  $1\times 10^{-4}$  eV in total energy were adopted. The p(4 ×4) LaNiO<sub>3</sub> (001) surface was constructed, whereas  $^{1}\!\!\!/~$  Ni was replaced by Fe to form p(4 ×4) LaNi\_{0.75}Fe\_{0.25}O\_3 (001) surface. (Ni\_{0.75}Fe\_{0.25})OOH (001) was built on the surface of LaNi\_{0.75}Fe\_{0.25}O\_3 (001), because the (Ni\_{0.75}Fe\_{0.25})OOH (001) was thermodynamically stable [50]. Moreover, the substitution of O by F was implemented to simulate the F doping. The Brillouin zone was sampled with Monkhorst mesh of  $1\times 1\times 1$  on account of the large unit cell. The Gibbs free energies for adsorbed oxygen intermediates were corrected via zero-point energy and entropy [20].

#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Structural characterization

The pristine LaNi $_{0.75}$ Fe $_{0.25}O_3$  (LNFO) perovskite was prepared via a sol-gel method [51]. Subsequently, the F incorporated LNFO perovskites were achieved after a facile fluorination annealing at 200 °C, 250 °C, 300 °C, 350 °C, denoted as LNFO-200 F, LNFO-250 F, LNFO-300 F, and LNFO-350 F, respectively. Crystalline structures of electrocatalyst powders were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD). As described in Fig. 1a, the as-prepared LNFO powder exhibits a rhombohedral perovskite structure (R-3c). After the fluorination treatment at various temperatures, the rhombohedral perovskite structure remains primarily unchanged (Fig. S1). Rietveld refinements were subsequently carried out on LNFO (Fig. 1b) and LNFO-250 F (Fig. 1c) powders to further analyze the detailed crystal structures. The simulated lattice parameters are summarized in Table S1. The unit cell volume of LNFO-250 F slightly reduces compared to LNFO, due to a smaller radius of fluorine anion replacing lattice oxygen.

Morphologies of the as-synthesized electrocatalysts were analyzed via scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). SEM analysis shows that the particles of all samples are well developed with dozens of nanometers in size (Fig. S2). Those particles connect with each other to form irregular aggregations (Fig. 1d), promising 3D connected networks for electron transfer and mass

transfer. Based on TEM analysis (Fig. S3), the obtained lattice spacings of the pristine LNFO are  $2.70\,\text{Å}$  and  $3.79\,\text{Å}$ , fairly corresponding to its (012) and (0-11) planes. In the case of LNFO-250 F, the lattice spacings are  $2.70\,\text{Å}$  and  $2.73\,\text{Å}$ , in line with (012) and (110) diffraction planes (Fig. 1e). Additionally, the fast fourier transform (FFT) pattern agrees well with the [2-21] zone axe of LNFO-250 F trigonal perovskite (Fig. 1f).

#### 3.2. Oxygen evaluation behavior

To investigate the effect of F incorporation on OER activity, electrochemical characterizations over LNFO, LNFO-200 F, LNFO-250 F, LNFO-300 F, LNFO-350 F and benchmark IrO2 electrocatalysts were performed in O2-saturated 1.0 M KOH electrolyte with a conventional three-electrode system. As described in polarization sweeps of linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) (Fig. 2a), the pristine LNFO electrocatalyst displays a moderate OER activity, requiring an overpotential of 396 mV to receive the current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 2b). After F incorporation, the overpotentials noticeably reduce. Among them, the LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst demonstrates the best OER activity with an extremely low overpotential of 292 mV at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. Notably, the OER activity of LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst is favorably compared to the benchmark IrO2 electrocatalyst and those recently reported perovskite electrocatalysts (LaNi<sub>0.8</sub>Fe<sub>0.2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [23], La<sub>0.9</sub>Ce<sub>0.1</sub>NiO<sub>3</sub> [26], LaNiO<sub>3</sub>/NiO [52], LaCo<sub>0.75</sub>Fe<sub>0.25</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [53],  $La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}(CoFeMnNiMg)O_3$  [20],  $V_{Fe,Sr}-La_xSr_{1-x}CoO_3$  [54],  $Ba_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}$  $Co_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O_{3-\delta}$  [10],  $SrNb_{0.1}Co_{0.7}Fe_{0.2}O_{3-\delta}$ , [55]  $PrBaCo_2O_{5+\delta}$  [56],  $PrBa_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}Co_{1.55}Fe_{0.45}O_{5+\delta}$  [57],  $PrBa_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}Co_{1.5}Fe_{0.5}O_{5+\delta}$  [11], La<sub>2</sub>NiMnO<sub>6</sub>,[58] Fig. S4). Interestingly, the LSV sweeps (Fig. 2a) together with the detailed cyclic voltammetry (CV) sweeps (Fig. S5) show that the distinct redox peaks preceding the OER process occur on the F-incorporated LNFO electrocatalysts rather than the pristine LNFO, which is likely ascribed to the electrochemical transformation of  $\mathrm{Ni}^{2+}/\mathrm{Ni}^{3+}$  [59,60]. These redox peaks suggest that the F-incorporation may induce newly-created species prior to OER process.

The OER kinetics of electrocatalysts were assessed via Tafel slopes and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). In Tafel plots (Fig. 2c), the fitted slope of LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst is  $58.8 \, \text{mV dec}^{-1}$ , smaller than those of other studied electrocatalysts, e.g.  $132.3 \, \text{mV dec}^{-1}$ 

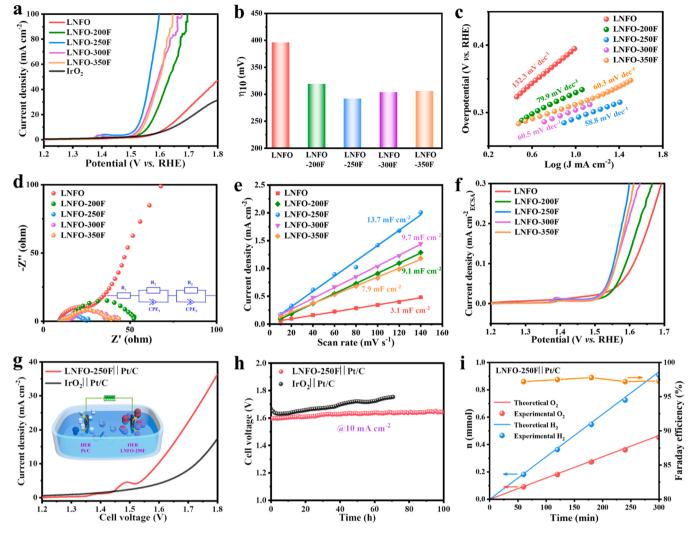


Fig. 2. (a) LSV polarization curves, (b) Overpotential values at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, (c) Tafel slopes extracted from LSV curves, (d) Nyquist plots, (e) Double-layer capacitances, (f) ECSA-normalized intrinsic activities of LNFO, LNFO-200 F, LNFO-250 F, LNFO-300 F, LNFO-350 F in 1.0 M KOH electrolyte; (g) Polarization curves, (h) Chronopotentiometry curves of alkaline water splitting devices using LNFO-250 F||Pt-C and IrO<sub>2</sub>||Pt/C coupled electrodes, and (i) Faraday efficiency of LNFO-250 F||Pt-C based water splitting device conducted at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>.

of pristine LNFO, 79.9 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> of LNFO-200 F, 60.5 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> of LNFO-300 F and 60.3 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> of LNFO-350 F. This indicates that the LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst yields a faster electrocatalytic kinetics towards OER than other electrocatalysts. Furthermore, the F-incorporation considerably reduces the polarization resistance of LNFO (Fig. 2d), fairly agreeing with the trend of OER activity. In addition, all EIS curves consist of two overlapped arcs, implying that there might be two rate-limiting processes. Equivalent circuit of  $R_s(R_1/\text{CPE}_1)(R_2/\text{CPE}_2)$  is thereby adopted to simulate the spectra, where  $R_s$ ,  $R_1$ , and  $R_2$  are, respectively, the resistance of electrolyte, the resistance of electrode texture as well as the resistance of charge transfer [33]. As illustrated in Table S2, the LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst possesses the smallest charge transfer resistance of 11.9  $\Omega$ , suggestive of the fastest charge transfer kinetics for OER.

By conducting CV sweeps at different scan rates from  $10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  to  $140 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  (Fig. S6), the derived double-layer capacitances ( $C_{\rm dl}$ ) of LNFO, LNFO-200 F, LNFO-250 F, LNFO-300 F and LNFO-350 F are 3.1 mF cm<sup>-2</sup>, 9.1 mF cm<sup>-2</sup>, 13.7 mF cm<sup>-2</sup>, 9.7 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> and 7.9 mF cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively (Fig. 2e). The largest  $C_{\rm dl}$  over LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst denotes the most active sites among those studied electrocatalysts. Furthermore, the LSV curves normalized via electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) are provided in Fig. 2 f. One can see that the LNFO-

250 F electrocatalyst exhibits the largest specific current density as well, indicative of the highest intrinsic activity towards OER.

To demonstrate the actual feasibility, a two-electrode water splitting system was assembled, consisting of LNFO-250 F anode, 1.0 M KOH solution electrolyte, and commercial Pt/C cathode (Fig. 2 g). For comparison, the electrolyzer using benchmark IrO<sub>2</sub>||Pt/C electrode was also prepared. To achieve the electrolytic current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, a reduced cell voltage of 1.58 V is required for the LNFO-250 F||Pt-C based electrolyzer, compared to the IrO2||Pt/C based electrolyzer (1.65 V for 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>). More importantly, the electrolyzer using LNFO-250 F||Pt-C electrode demonstrates an excellent durability during practical operation. The benchmark IrO<sub>2</sub>||Pt/C based electrolyzer shows gradual degradation during the continuously electrochemical operation. By contrast, a tiny decay in cell voltage (less than 50 mV) is obtained after electrolyzing for 100 h (Fig. 2 h). In addition, the LNFO-250 F||Pt-C based electrolyzer almost remains stable at a high applied current density of 100 mA cm $^{-2}$  (Fig. S7). Fig. 2i shows that the experimental  $O_2$ and H<sub>2</sub> production are compared to the theoretical data. At a current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, the faradaic efficiencies of the LNFO-250 F||Pt-C based electrolyzer are approximately 97 %.

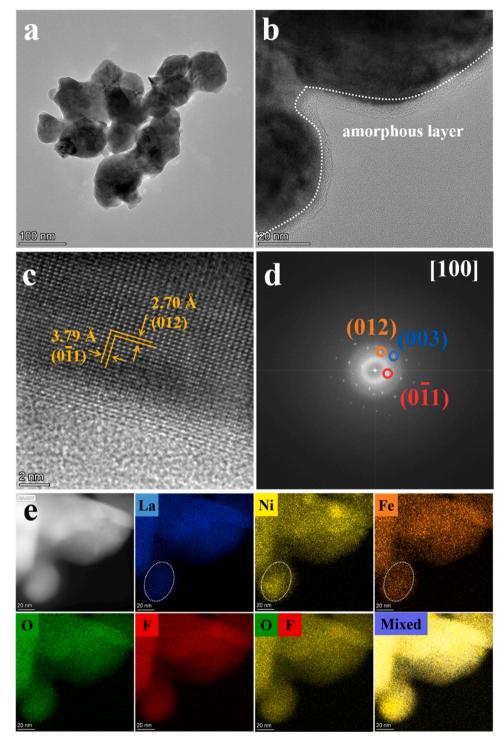


Fig. 3. (a) Low magnification TEM image, High magnification TEM images with different scale bars of (b) 20 nm and (c) 2 nm, (d) Fast flourier transform, and (e) Elemental mappings of LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst post-OER.

#### 3.3. Dynamic surface reorganization

To probe the potential surface evolution and structural change happened during OER process, ex-situ and in-situ structure characterizations were implemented. Examined by TEM, the morphology of the post-OER LNFO perovskite remains stable (Fig. S8). The observed interplanar spacing of 3.82 Å is well assigned to the (101) plane of LNFO. In contrast, although the overall microstructure is maintained (Fig. 3a), a stretch of amorphous layer with a thickness of  $\sim\!5~\rm nm$  is generated on the near-surface of the post-OER LNFO-250 F

electrocatalyst (Fig. 3b). Under the amorphous layer, the retentive LNFO-250 F perovskite crystalline structure is confirmed, as evidenced via the lattice spacings (Fig. 3c) and FFT pattern (Fig. 3d). Additionally, elemental mapping analysis illustrates that the surface reconstruction of LNFO-250 F is accompanied by the richness of Ni, Fe rather than La (Fig. 3e). By comparison, we can speculate that F incorporation triggers the surface structural transformation of perovskite oxide.

As revealed, the electronic structure of amorphous layer is closely related with OER mechanism [61]. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra of LNFO and LNFO-250 F electrocatalysts before and after

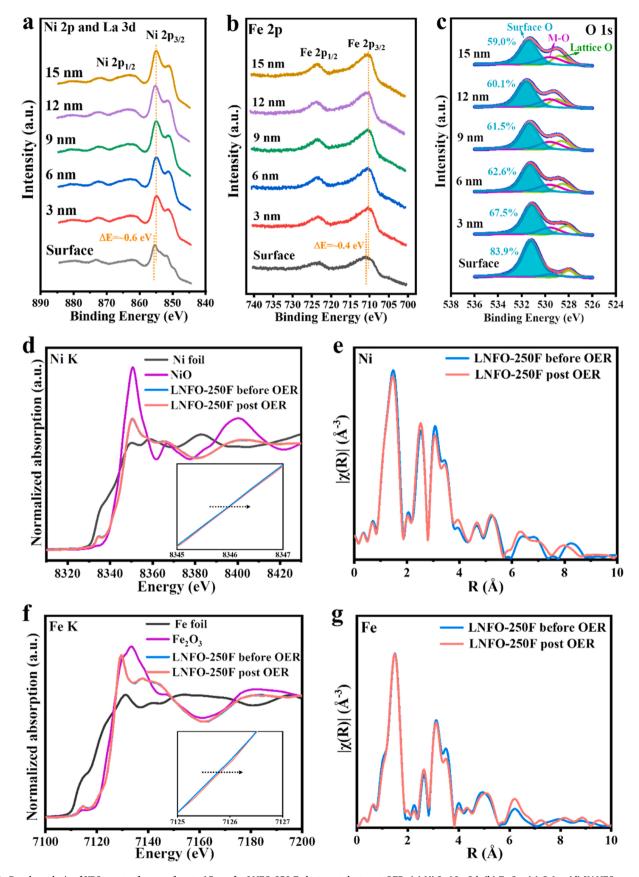


Fig. 4. Depth analysis of XPS spectra from surface to 15 nm for LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst post-OER, (a) Ni 2p&La 3d, (b) Fe 2p, (c) O 1 s; (d) XANES spectra of Ni K-edge, (e) EXAFS spectra of Ni in R space, (f) XANES spectra of Fe K-edge, (g) EXAFS spectra of Fe in R space for LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst before and post OER.

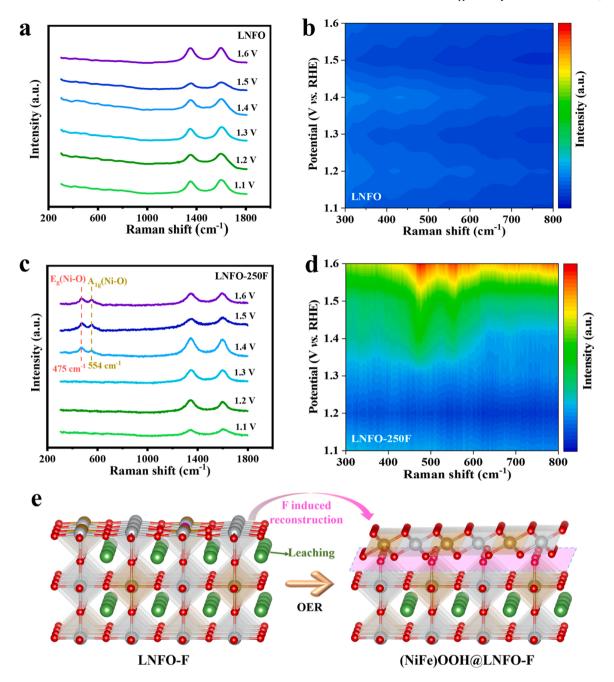


Fig. 5. (a) In-situ Raman spectra at cycle applied potentials from 1.1 V to 1.6 V and (b) Corresponding contour plots of in-situ Raman spectra for LNFO electrocatalyst; (c) In-situ Raman spectra at cycle applied potentials from 1.1 V to 1.6 V and (d) Corresponding contour plots of in-situ Raman spectra for LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst; (e) Proposed F induced surface reconstruction behavior on perovskite oxide (La atom: green, Ni atom: light white, Fe atom: brown, F atom: purple, O atom: red).

OER operation were then investigated. As shown in Fig. S9, the characteristic peaks of Ni 2p and Fe 2p of LNFO have no significant shifts before and after OER operation. But for LNFO-250 F (Fig. S10), the Ni 2p peaks located at 857.2 eV and 853.6 eV are indexed to Ni-F and Ni<sup>II</sup> species before OER [62], which transform into the typical Ni<sup>III</sup> peak at 855.7 eV after OER [23]. Meanwhile, the Fe  $2p_{3/2}$  core-level peak of LNFO-250 F shifts to a high binding energy with about 0.4 eV after OER, indicating that a relatively higher valence state of Fe is received in the post-OER LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst. Moreover, the O 1 s spectra can be deconvoluted into lattice O at ~528.7 eV, perovskite termination M-O at ~529.5 eV and surface O at ~531.3 eV [52,63]. The concentration of surface oxygen species of LNFO-250 F is significantly enhanced after OER process, indicating the improved adsorption

capacity of oxygen intermediates for OER. Additionally, the XPS spectra of LNFO-250 F with different operation time remains almost constant over time, suggesting that the amorphous layer is likely chemically stable during OER process. We further conduct XPS depth profiling from surface to 15 nm in depth for the post-OER LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst. As shown in Fig. 4a, the Ni  $2p_{3/2}$  peak in near surface (~3 nm) shifts to higher binding energy (about 0.4 eV) compare to other depths. Similar pattern is also identified in Fe  $2p_{3/2}$  spectra (Fig. 4b). These positive shifts denote that both the valence states of nickel and iron in the near surface are improved by electrochemical OER operation. Furthermore, it is clearly seen that the relative concentration of surface oxygen also remarkably increases in the near surface.

To further explore the Ni 3d and Fe 3d states, X-ray absorption near-

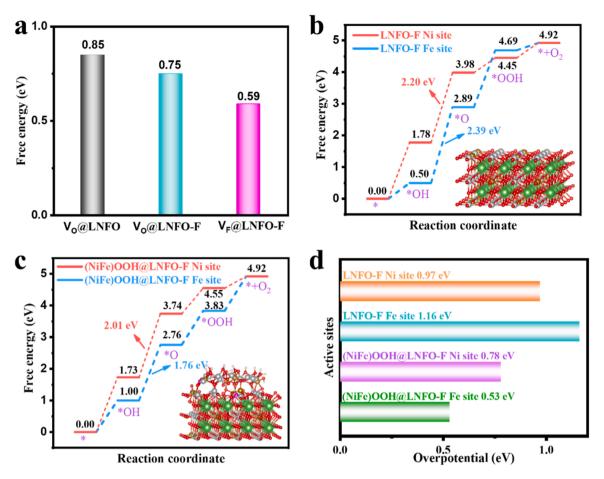


Fig. 6. DFT calculations. (a) Vacancy formation energy on LNFO and LNFO-F surface; OER free energy diagram of (b) the LNFO-F and (c) the surface reconstructed (NiFe)OOH@LNFO-F; and (d) Corresponding theoretical overpotentials.

edge structure (XANES) spectroscopy and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) measurements at Ni K-edge and Fe K-edge of the LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst before and after OER process were performed. One can see that both XANES Ni K-edge (Fig. 4d) and Fe K-edge (Fig. 4f) undergo little shift to higher energy, implying that the apparent oxidation states of Ni and Fe are oxidized via OER electrocatalysis [52]. These oxidated Ni and Fe states are well consistent with the results of XPS analysis. In addition, derived from the EXAFS Ni (Fig. 4e) and Fe (Fig. 4g) spectroscopy of LNFO-250 F, the fitted path of Ni-O and Fe-O shorten from 1.95 to 1.94 Å and 1.94–1.93 Å, respectively, after OER process (Table S3). The detailed wavelet transform counter map of Ni and Fe are depicted in Fig. S11, to visualize coordination environment. The changes of morphology and chemical state evidentially confirm the surface reconstruction of LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst after OER operation.

To reveal the dynamic surface reorganization process, operando Raman measurements during OER process were employed (Fig. S12). With the applied potential increasing from 1.1 V to 1.6 V (vs. reversible hydrogen electrode, RHE), no other peaks are detected except the characteristic peaks of the pristine LNFO, as shown in Raman spectra (Fig. 5a) and corresponding contour plots (Fig. 5b). On the contrary, the potential-dependent Raman spectra (Fig. 5c) and contour plots (Fig. 5d) of F-incorporated LNFO-250 F clearly show that when the applied potentials are higher than 1.3 V vs. RHE, two strong Raman signals at around 475 and 554 cm<sup>-1</sup> are gained, respectively, corresponding to Ni-O bending and NiOOH stretching vibration [64–66]. These results evidently show that the F incorporation can induce surface reconstruction of LNFO perovskite during OER process, yielding a new phase of electrochemically active oxyhydroxide. In addition, the Raman signals

of Ni-O bending and NiOOH stretching vibration for LNFO-250 F decrease with the reduced potential in a cycling process (Fig. S13), suggesting a reversible electrochemical transformation between Ni $^{2+}$ /Ni $^{3+}$ . This is also confirmed by CV curves in Fig. S5. Based on the analysis of TEM, XPS, XAS, and operando Raman, the electrochemically driven surface reconstruction on F incorporated LNFO as a formation of perovskite-oxyhydroxide core-shell heterostructure is verified. As proposed in Fig. 5e, the (NiFe) coordination polyhedrons on perovskite surface undergo a reconstruction process to form (NiFe)OOH, meanwhile the surface La cations may leach out from perovskite [67].

#### 3.4. Oxygen evaluation mechanism

Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were carried out to deepen the understanding of surface reconstruction and intrinsic activity of F incorporated LNFO electrocatalyst. It is well accepted that the vacancy formation enthalpy of perovskites plays as an essential cause of surface reconstruction. The low vacancy formation energy usually facilitates the structural rearrangement kinetics [26,62]. For comparison, we build the architectures of surface oxygen vacancy in LNFO (Fig. S14), surface oxygen vacancy in F-doped LNFO (LNFO-F), and surface fluorine vacancy in LNFO-F (Fig. S15). The calculated vacancy formation energies are illustrated in Fig. 6a. The formation energy of surface oxygen vacancy in LNFO is 0.85 eV, which is higher than those of surface oxygen vacancy (0.75 eV) and surface fluorine vacancy in LNFO-F (0.59 eV). This indicates that the vacancies, especially fluorine vacancy, in LNFO-F are readily generated relative to the oxygen vacancy in LNFO, ultimately in favor of structural rearrangement.

Moreover, a widely accepted four electron-proton coupled OER

mechanism involves the sequential process of \*  $\rightarrow$ \*OH $\rightarrow$ \*O $\rightarrow$ \*OOH $\rightarrow$ \* [68]. On the basis of the electrochemically driven surface reconstruction, (NiFe)OOH@LNFO-F heterostructure was adopted to predict the real active sites. For comparison, the LNFO-F surface was also built to compare the OER activity. Considering the strong interaction between transition metal 3d orbital and O 2p orbital, oxygen intermediates are prone to be adsorbed on Ni (or Fe) sties of LNFO-F and (NiFe) OOH@LNFO-F. These adsorbed configurations for OER process are presented in Figs. S16-S19. The rate-limiting step with the largest energy barrier of OER for both LNFO-F (Fig. 6b) and (NiFe)OOH@LNFO-F (Fig. 6c) is the electrochemical conversion from \*OH to \*O. The calculated energy barriers over surface Ni site and Fe site of LNFO-F are 2.20 eV and 2.39 eV, respectively. In the case of (NiFe)OOH@LNFO-F, the energy barriers on surface Ni site and Fe site reduce to 2.01 eV and 1.76 eV. It is concluded that the (NiFe)OOH@LNFO-F heterostructure with lower overpotentials guarantees higher OER activity compared to the individual LNFO-F surface (Fig. 6d), fairly agreeing with the results of electrochemical measurements. Consequently, F incorporation into LNFO electrocatalyst with low vacancy formation energy activates the surface reconstruction, resulting in electrochemically active oxyhydroxide-perovskite heterostructure. Nevertheless, the excessive F incorporation may lead to low electronic conductivity [69,70], potentially impeding the OER process.

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, we have developed an effective and effortless strategy of engineering anion defect on perovskite oxide to trigger the dynamic surface reconstruction for OER. The resultant fluorine incorporated LNFO-250 F electrocatalyst, delivering a small overpotential of 292 mV at 10 mA cm $^{-2}$  and a low Tafel slope of 58.8 mV dec $^{-1}$ , is more active for OER than the pristine LNFO electrocatalyst and the commercial  $\rm IrO_2$  electrocatalyst. Moreover, the LNFO-250 F||Pt-C based electrolyzer shows a good durability over 100 h under real operation conditions. According to the experimental and theoretical analysis, fluorine incorporated LNFO perovskite with low vacancy formation energy trigger surface transformation process. As a result, this formed oxyhydroxide-perovskite heterostructure efficiently lowers the energy barrier of OER. This protocol sheds light on rationally engineering surface reconstruction on perovskite electrocatalysts for water oxidation.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

Jing Zhang: Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – original draft. Yu Ye: Data curation, Investigation. Bo Wei: Methodology, Software. Feng Hu: Formal analysis. Longtao Sui: Investigation. Huangwei Xiao: Investigation. Liangqi Gui: Software. Jian Sun: Methodology. Beibei He and Ling Zhao: Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

#### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

#### Data availability

The data that has been used is confidential.

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#### Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary materials are available free of charge. Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.122661.

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